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ABSTRACT

Papers presented at an English Language workshop represent topics discussed during the institute to inform and assist English teachers in meeting the needs of all the students in the classroom. The papers discuss an introduction to grammar as seen by a linguist, structural grammar, phonology, and transformational grammar. Specific examples are given in each section, and a selected bibliography lists surveys of trends as well as discussions of selected issues and trends. (It appears that one page in the middle of the text is missing.) (LH)

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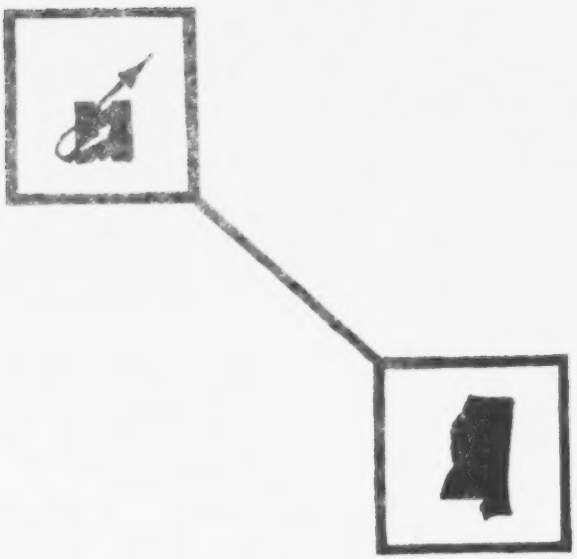
LANGUAGE WORKSHOP
FOR
SECONDARY ENGLISH TEACHERS



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MISSISSIPPI STATE UNIVERSITY
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JACKSON, MISSISSIPPI

AUGUST, 1972

AS 200 164

PAPERS DELIVERED

DURING

ENGLISH LANGUAGE WORKSHOP

June, 1372

Compiled and Edited
by
Augustine H. McPhail, State English Consultant

(Part of a Title IV Project)

MISSISSIPPI EDUCATIONAL SERVICES CENTER
MISSISSIPPI STATE UNIVERSITY
and
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Jackson, Mississippi

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FOREWORD

The Mississippi Educational Services Center of Mississippi State University promoted an enrichment program for the English teachers of Mississippi which should enable them to assist other teachers with problems identified by them in the English department of the school systems in the state. Briefly the program was conducted for these purposes:

1. To present an overview of teacher problems in English instruction, grades 7-12.

2. To present suggestions for teaching in the classroom.

3. To provide possible solutions to problems in the teaching of English in the desegrated school.

The institute was held on the campus of Mississippi State University on June 1-9, 1972 with the participants earning three semester hours credit.

The materials in this publication represent topics discussed during the institute:

1. An Introduction to Grammar as a Linguist Sees It - Dr. Marice Brown, Chairman of the English Department, University of Southern Mississippi, Hattiesburg.

2. Structural Grammar - Miss Joanne Futch, Consultant, American Book Company, New York, N.Y.

3. Phonology - James O'Neil, Consultant, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., Dallas, Texas.

4. Transformational Grammar - Dr. Roderick Jacobs, Consultant, Ginn & Company, Lexington, Mass.

The papers presented here are for the purpose of informing and assisting the English teachers in meeting the needs of all the students in the classroom.

AN INTRODUCTION TO GRAMMAR AS A LINGUIST SEES IT

by Dr. Marice Brown, English Department Chairman
University of Southern Mississippi

The title assigned to me indicates something of the generality of this morning's opening session. To keep from being so abstract as to be meaningless, I have carefully planned the discussion to introduce you to the various aspects of linguistics that you will be dealing with during the rest of the institute.

You have, no doubt, come with varying degrees of expertise in linguistics; and some of you may have no knowledge at all of what linguistics is all about. Worse yet, some of you may have false notions of what linguistics is all about.

I plead indulgence from the first group, as I deal with very elementary matters, a clear head and a sharp ear from the second group, and a willingness to re-evaluate from the third. Let us, then, get down to business with a few definitions. The initial question is obviously what is linguistics. To say that it is a scientific study of language is not very informative if we do not understand the concept of the term scientific study. What we mean, of course, is that we pay attention to those aspects of language that are observable; we make statements about them, categorize them, test them. If our statements prove false, we re-examine the data, re-state, re-test, etc. For example, let us take the third person singular, present tense, in English. It is absolutely true that in any standard English form we are going to get some form of what is sometimes called the morpheme $\{Z_3\}$. This form is always spelled -s or -es, but it has three pronunciations, as you may test in the words cats (where you hear an -s, dogs (where you hear a z), and buses (where you get a syllable composed of a vowel and a -z, the vowel varying considerable from speaker to speaker. Now--note that I started off by saying that this will be one hundred per cent true of standard English, but since there are other varieties (sometimes called substandard or nonstandard) any statement of English fact must include statements of all varieties of English. We know that there are speakers of black dialects all about us who use forms like he bes. This is very interesting, because the -z is absolutely correct. The fact that makes he bes nonstandard is not the -z ending, but the fact that it is attached to be instead of to a lax high vowel [I] to give us is. Again, we must note that there are speakers of black dialects who say he be--without the expected ending but if we listen carefully we see that they say

I bes
You be
He be

Now--our statement must be modified to include such speech. All we have to do is note that the $\{Z_3\}$ (or 3rd person singular) ending occurs on verbs in the present tense except in some dialects where nothing occurs (we often refer to the nothing as a zero morph), but--and this is important--when it does not occur in the third person singular, it will occur on the first person.

Now our statement fits the actual facts. Without encroaching on Mrs. Campbell's talk this afternoon, let me point out that I did not get emotional about the linguistic statement. I didn't call the forms used good or bad, correct or incorrect. I did not call the speakers of the forms educated or ignorant. I just wrote down what the facts are.

Now that we have looked briefly at what linguistics is, perhaps we should take the time to review what we mean when we talk about languages. Do porpoises talk? Do bees talk? Some definitions of language are so broad as to include animal communication as language,

but I should like to use a tighter definition. I want to characterize language as human, vocal, and audible. This will rule out writing, for example, which is human but not vocal and audible. I want to keep before us the simple concept that people spoke long before they wrote. And the evidence is strong that people spoke long before they sent smoke signals or beat drums or communicated in various other ways that were not both vocal and audible. (Drums, for example, are audible but not vocal.) Such a definition, however, still does not give us a firm enough control of what language is. I would like to further qualify by citing four very important characteristics of language. These particular characteristics were noted by W. Nelson Francis in his book The English Language, (W. W. Norton, 1965).

1. Language is arbitrary. This means that there is no logical connection between the thing and its name. When people say that a name "sounds right," all they are saying is that it is customary for them to call this thing by a certain name. What is familiar tends to sound "right." Language is not logical; it is arbitrary.

2. Language is conventional. Suppose some day I decide I do not think rock sounds like a hard object and I decide to find another word for it. I decide grig sounds harder than rock and so I call it that--all the time. The initial choice of grig was foolish, but it was arbitrary. There is no connection between the sound grig. Now, because I say grig instead of rock, my children and grandchildren learn to say it and in our family it becomes conventional to say grig. The neighbor's children pick it up and take it to school and pretty soon in Hattiesburg we call small, hard geological formations broken off from larger objects grigs. The word was first arbitrary, that is, there was no real relationship between grig and the object. The name has now become conventional, that is, a community of speakers call the object in question a grig.

3. Language is culturally transmitted. Language is not inherited. The tendency to any particular language is not inherited. A baby who is deaf and consequently does not hear speech, does not learn to speak, though he can easily enough make the non-arbitrary, nonconventional babbling sounds. All babies babble alike at first. This babbling, at least initially, is not culturally transmitted, that is, it has no meaning conveyed by any given sequence of sounds.

4. Language is multiple structured. And this brings us at long last to the main point. To say that language is structured is simply to say that we cannot talk about language in one set of terms. Do we mean how it sounds? What is the inventory of its phonemes? Do we mean what it means? If we assume only two extremes for language, then we can say that they are content--that is, some common "meaning" understood by its hearers--and expression--that is, the sounds that somehow call forth or convey the common meaning. It is over-simplification, however, to limit the levels or layers of structure to two. At this point, we cannot be sure exactly how many it is best to assume. Most modern linguists however insist upon a minimum of three: phonology, grammar (which itself is divided into morphology and syntax) and semology. The whole basis of continued interest in modern linguistics is to determine exactly what relationships exist among these levels.

SESSION II

During this session I should like to take up the matter of the definition of grammar and to talk about kinds of grammar and the consequences of choosing a given grammar as a classroom guide.

We noted a few minutes ago that grammar incorporated both morphology and syntax. Do not be disturbed by the technical language. All the statement means is that single units functioning together belong to morphology. Examples are: un- + tie, friend + -ly, and boy + -s. It is easy to see that the second element in each case differs. In untie, tie has a referential content, that is, it relates to something in the real world. The other two are purely grammatical, but in different ways. The suffix -ly changes the word class--or part of speech, if you prefer that term--from a noun to an adjective, whereas the -s marks the word as a plural form, but does not change its word class. Syntax concerns larger units:

John ran
in the car
the tall boy
the tall boy in the car

Grammar is still insufficiently defined. We have not deleted old, inaccurate ideas about what grammar is or is supposed to be. Let me borrow from yet another article by W. Nelson Francis entitled "Revolution in Grammar," (Quarterly Journal of Speech, SL [October, 1954], 299-312) to clarify what all the people who will be talking to you will mean by the term.

1. First, grammar is "the set of formal patterns in which the words of a language are arranged in order to convey larger meanings." In other words, this grammar applies to word patterns such as preposition and object, subject and verb, verb and adverb and all the other patterns that even small children use. I might say that grammar I is the way I string words together so that you understand me.

2. Grammar II is the "analysis, description, and formulization of these patterns." "He wrote a grammar," we say. We mean that he somehow set forth the system of the language. It may be done in any one of several ways. For example, it may be traditional and start with the ways in which words are categorized as parts of speech. We shall return to this point later. Grammar I is the system of language. Grammar II is the symbolization of the system.

3. Grammar III is defined by Francis as "Linguistic etiquette." It is reference to to the niceties of language that all too many teachers spend their days teaching. I may want to suggest to a student that in certain circumstances he is is more appropriate than he bes, but I should really be far more concerned that he recognize the regularity of the Z_3 and that he understands how that fact is a part of a larger system.

Now that we have sufficiently defined our terms, let us keep in mind that during this week your speakers will almost always be talking about Grammars I and II--almost never about Grammar III.

In describing a language, however, we have found that the separation of grammar into the tight little compartment I indicated earlier is rarely sufficient. One of the principles involved in structural grammar is that every statement of a language must be made in terms of the level immediately "below" it. And now I must digress to tell you something that the English language is incapable of doing. It is impossible for me to talk about levels in English without putting them into a spatial context. And yet these levels are not in any real sense "below" or "above" any other level, since they occur simultaneously. It is one of the places where my language forces me to express myself in terms that are contrary to reality. When I say that each level must be expressed in terms immediately "below" it, I am only saying that I seem to have found a convenient

way of showing relationships. Meaning will be expressed in grammatical terms, grammar in phonemic terms, phonemes in phonetic symbols, etc.

My main goal in this session is to set the basis for three major kinds of analyses and to show that there are differences in the way one talks about language, dependent upon the kind of analytical method one chooses. All have their strengths and weaknesses, which is to say that some are good for one purpose, some for another. I would like to suggest, however, that only teachers who know fully all three kinds of grammars and what each purports to do should attempt any synthesis among them. For years now, I have been trying to point out that to use bits and pieces of structural or generative grammars without knowing the theory supporting them is gimmickry at its worst and you may expect no better results than you got when you taught traditional grammar as if it were grammar III, or "linguistic etiquette." Obviously I am talking to the wrong people. Your presence here indicates an open mind and a willingness to learn, and I commend you heartily for that fact.

I said that we would discuss three major grammars. There are others (stratificational, for example), but I shall stick to traditional, structural, and generative grammars in an attempt to show you some important facts about each. Incidentally, I promise ahead of time that I shall not encroach too heavily upon the work of Miss Futch on Monday, June 5, or of professor Jacobs on Wednesday, June 7. I am hopeful that what I say today will aid you in listening better when those speakers go into detail about matters I shall discuss only superficially.

Let us start with traditional grammar, which I assume you are all familiar with. One of the main criticisms against traditional grammar has been that the definitions are inconsistent. Some parts of speech designate what the word purports to do or designate: nouns name; verbs state. Others show modification: adjectives and adverbs. Pronouns stand for nouns (a mistake, of course).

I have passed out a handout with some sentences we shall examine.

1. No books were left lying around

2. None were left lying around

3. Books were not left lying around

4. Books were never left lying around

What parts of speech are no, none, not and never? Traditionally, we probably would have said that no is an adjective; none is a pronoun; not and never are adverbs. Your first four sentences illustrates this (from handout). An examination of the facts shows some interesting variations. One of the most used, soundest traditional grammars I know is Pence and Emery A Grammar of Present-Day English (2nd ed., 1966). However, it is a striking fact that nowhere do the authors gather together all negatives and discuss them in a block. However, by searching in the index I find a modicum of information.

1. I find no may be an adverb (specifically Pence savs an adverb used "absolutely or independently" (p. 104). Now when we look at the definition of adverbs we find on page 6 "an adverb is a word that describes or modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb." Nowhere does the definition say that adverbs may be used "absolutely or independently" or even, as seems to be the case in

sentence (5)--if we wish to stick to modification--that an adverb can modify a whole sentence. We see, then, that the definition is good only up to a point, but that it fails to cover all the cases. Nobody would argue, I am sure, that since the definition doesn't cover it, the sentence

5. No, I haven't seen any books lying around

is not an English sentence, and a perfectly acceptable one at that.

2. The only concern Pence and Emery show for the word none is whether it is singular or plural. They make a pedantic argument about it on page 238. Since historically none is simply a blend of no one, the authors seem uneasy with sentences like None of the books are lying around. They never discover that the singularity or plurality is determined by whether the object of the following preposition is a count noun or a mass noun. Sentences 6 and 7 illustrate the fact.

   6. None of the fruit is left. (Fruit is a mass noun.)

   7. None of the books are left. (Books is a plural count noun.)

3. Since we traditionally think of not and never as adverbial, let us examine these words together. We will find some interesting similarities. I may note in passing that our traditionalists whom I am using as representative make only one reference in the index to adverbs--the familiar types: time, place, manner, degree, and a catch-all miscellaneous. This last group is far more interesting for what it omits than for what it includes--for example, negatives. Let us examine sentences 8-10.

   8. He is not here. He is never here. He is not ever here.

   9. He has not left. He has never left. He has not ever left.

   10. He will not leave. He will never leave. He will not ever leave.

   We see some interesting parallels. These forms do indeed appear to be adverbial. And the comparison of never and not ever indicates that we are dealing with two forms of the same phrase. Furthermore, we are now back to the class I adverb of time (ever meaning something like 'at some time') except that never is a negated time 'not at any time'. Traditional grammar often ignores the more sophisticated points of the system. Nevertheless, regardless of the kind of grammar, it is incumbent upon the analyst to deal with all the language.

Now, let me be insistent upon one point. This discussion about traditional grammar was not made to denigrate traditional grammar as such. It was made to point out what a grammar must do. First, whatever rules one makes to categorize words in a language must be applied across the board. We cannot just drop the rules if they give us embarrassing information. Second, we must have a method of categorizing that applies to all the language, not just a convenient portion of it. For example, in addition to the matter mentioned above, traditional grammar ignores how tag questions are formed. Look at sentences 11-14.

   11. He left it there, didn't he? (Notice the negative)

   12. He didn't leave it here, did he?

13. He is here, isn't he?

14. He isn't here, is he?

Every English sentence containing a question tag also contains one negative and only one negative. If the main clause is negative, the tag is affirmative. If the main clause is affirmative, the tag is negative.

One final remark on this point. I have used the term rule--grammatical rule--several times. A Linguistic rule is not a set of guidelines developed to separate right from wrong, correct from incorrect. A linguistic rule is a statement of the facts that appear when the analytical apparatus is applied. But if there are facts not attributable to the analysis, then the apparatus needs to be re-examined and the hypothesis about language revised. When the facts that appear correspond exactly with the reality of language as we know it, then we know the apparatus is a good one. The Traditional grammar, as we have seen, is not a perfect grammar.

SESSION III

In this period I shall attempt to apply some further evaluative measures to structural and transformational grammars. We shall continue to use the same set of sentences for our measurement. I am using as a representative structural text W. Nelson Francis' The Structure of American English. I could just as easily have chosen C. C. Fries, or Paul Roberts' early structural work, or James Sledd. I chose Francis because his work is the most comprehensive and refined of those mentioned.

Structural grammar is primarily concerned in how words, phrases, etc. are positioned in a sentence and in determining what substitutes for what. It is the ability to substitute in a frame

the / / is good

words like boy, girl, cook, cake, etc., that characterize these words as all belonging to the same word class. If you examine sentence (15) you will see a frame that I have devised.

15. No / A / The / Some / Any / *None book is left here.

The asterisk indicates that a native speaker would reject the utterance as an English sentence. Now we can see that no is a word like a, the, some, any, etc. But look at 16.

16. No, the book isn't here.

Yes, the book is here.

*A, the book is here

*Some, the book is here.

We seem to have no operating in some quite special way here where only yes and no are involved. We probably shall want to say that no occurs in some places that yes does

not or we may want to say that there are two no's and that they are homophones. This is a highly technical point and one that we do not have to deal with today. We do have to pay attention to how they work, however.

Now look again at sentences 8, 9, and 10.

8. He is not here. He is never here. He is not ever here.

9. He has not left. He has never left. He has not ever left.

10. He will not leave. He will never leave. He will not ever leave.

We can see that never belongs to the same word class as not ever; but even though both are negatives, not and never are not completely interchangeable. Look at 17.

17. Not ever will I go.

Never will I go.

*Not will I go.

There are other similarities and dissimilarities we could note. For example, (18).

18. Isn't he working?

Hasn't he worked?

Won't he work?

*Is never he working?

*Has never he worked?

*Will never he work?

We have not covered all eventualities, but a descriptive grammar would deal with our negative words so as to show where they will occur and the environmental restrictions against their occurrence. For example, standard English does not have not and never occurring in the same sentence, though many nonstandard dialects do have.

19. He won't never work.

I think that we can now see why linguists have so often wrongly been accused of not caring what people say. If the main purpose of the linguist is to describe the language, then he has little time for condemning it. His job is to make statements that show how the facts of language constitute a system of interrelationships.

Finally, let us look at generative transformational grammars. We do not study transformational grammars primarily to determine word classes or parts of speech. We study them to determine how we can generate a sentence. Let me give an analogy. An architect designs a house and in his blueprint he draws all the electrical connentions. All the lines, switches, connections, fuse boxes, etc. comprise a system so that the person snapping on a light in the living room will not expect the porch light to come on--unless that prerogative belonged to the system. Now the electrician reading the blueprint sees how the system works. And in case of electrical trouble he knows which line to follow to solve the problem. He can something like this: "If I follow

this line, it will connect to the washing machine." The linguist can say, "If I have a sentence, it will contain both a subject and a predicate." Or "If I have a prepositional phrase, it will consist of a preposition and a noun phrase." The rules are written in the by-now familiar form of A B. Obviously, like the reader of the blueprint, I must know the consequences of selecting any given rule.

Beyond this simple goal is another one. We need to show the relationships between any two or more related phrases or clauses of a language. For example, I want to know how no is related to none and not and I wish to make my statement in a generalization that is expressible in abstract terms. Examine the sentences below.

20.

No	boys book fruit girls milk	⟷	None of the	boys books fruit *trees milk

RULE: No + noun ⟶ None + of + the + { noun pl (c) / Noun sg (m) }

Where c and m stand for count and mass.

There is a consistency in the pattern that permits me to state the relationship between the negative phrase on the left and paraphrase on the right. The asterisk placed above trees is to point up that none of the trees cannot be a paraphrase of no girls, a specific example of an implicit fact that the adequacy of the paraphrase depends upon the nouns in the two phrases being identical. It is important to note that the rule given above does not apply merely to sentences in English. It applies rather to the system of the English language where the rule has captured a generalization concerning the language.

Let us look at another relationship we have not yet noted. See (21) where not, which we noted earlier was adverbial is here appearing before a noun phrase which is singular. No may occur with both singular and plural nouns, but there are severe restrictions against the occurrence of not. Interestingly also, not precedes the entire noun phrase. In other words, no is mutually exclusive with other determiners as previously shown in sentence 15, but not may occur with the determiner a. In this construction it is similar to many.

21.

No	girl(s) boy(s) book(s)	was (were) there
Not a	girl boy book	was there
Many a	girl boy book	was there

RULE: no + noun + sg ⟶ not + a + noun + sg

We could go on and on. When we play with the language, we continue to discover more and more facts; and every fact fits somehow into the overall system.

Sentences 22 and 23 point out some interesting relationships between whole sentences which are controlled by whether the question is posed negatively or affirmatively. Again, the sentences we observe follow a pattern and we are able to make a generalization in the form of a transformational rule.

22.

Do you have any	bananas / books / cards	?	No, I haven't any. *No, I haven't some. Yes I have some.
Don't you have some	bananas / books / cards	?	Yes, I have some. No, I haven't any.

RULE: Aff. quest. + any } Neg. ans. + any

Neg. quest. + some } Aff. ans. + some

We have not begun to examine all the ramifications of negatives in English. Nor have we devised an orderly statement in terms of any of the three grammars under discussion. I have only attempted this morning to point out that a grammar is an apparatus for examining the language. To be effective the grammar must be consistently applied. It must account for all the language so that we can make predictive statements.

Language is systematic. A grammar reveals the system. Let us in our teaching leave off the nit picking, if I may end on an inelegant note, and help students find some of the excitement we see in discovering daily new facts about the oldest social convention we possess--individually or collectively--our language.

"AN INTRODUCTION TO GRAMMAR AS AN ENGLISH TEACHER SEES IT"

Joanne Futch, Educational Consultant, American Book Co.

(1) Questions on linguistics to initiate program - discussion of the answers

a. Broadcasters do have a dialect. Every person has!
b. Dictionaries reflect the use of the language by majority of the educated people. Victor Weidman.

1. Suggest writing dictionary company for teaching aids, especially Webster for test booklets for advanced students.
2. Suggest have advanced students do comparative study of dictionaries.
3. Encourage 7th and 8th graders to make own dictionary of "their words".
4. Have old dictionary on hand.
5. Be flexible about language.

c. English is spoken more widely than any other language in the world.
d. Most of everyday English words from A.S. (O.E.)
e. Experts are fascinated by slang and all facets.
f. Language is not just sum total of all words.
g. Linguistics is not a specific methodology for teaching grammer. Is total involvement with language.
h. Linguistics is a disease....- hopefully not. Take study of language back into the classroom.
i. Linguistics is the scientific study of the language.

Linguistics in Terms of the Classroom

(1) Teaching approach or techniques
(Used noun as we were taught it as an example. Instead inductive approach more effective and meaningful)

(2) Content -- broader approach as to what is included
(History of the language, semantics)

*What can be done with semantics:

Mr. Whiteside is a conversationalist.)
Miss Whiteside is a chatterbox.)--- Denotation vs. Connotation
Mrs. Whiteside is a gossip.)

The use of the media -- note for slants

a. Study of magazines, newspapers
b. Study of advertising
c. Consideration of an elective on the media

"Textbook should be only a point of departure" -- Teacher must be a "scavenger."

Live in a society of acronym and euphemism.

a. acronym - NASA, etc.
b. euphemism - gardener, landscape architect
false teeth, dentures

(3) Linguistic geography -- may be controversial

The James Sledds -- changing one's dialect is a no-no.
Other extreme -- must change one's dialect.

a. Happy medium is the order for English Teachers

b. Involve students in an awareness of dialects; teach units of dialectology aiming that the students will have an understandins of, respect for, and an appreciation of the dialects of other people.

("I done finished my chores" "You(singular) wuz" -- acceptable Elizabethan English)

c. Get brochures from the states to study the differences -- Texas; Charleston, S. Car.; Tennessee and North Carolina mountain; Cajun Territory.

d. Professional material -- Discovering American Dialect, The News Courier, 134 Columbus St., Charleston, S. Car.
Nonstandard Dialect - South Carolina

Our attitude toward the language:

(1) Language is dynamic, always evolving
(2) English teachers are guardians; protect it from corruption(as about "for who")

NCTE Statements about the language

(1) Languages changes constantly.
(2) Change is normal and represents not corruption but improvement.
(3) Spoken language is the language.
(4) Correctness rests upon usage.
(5) All usage is relative.

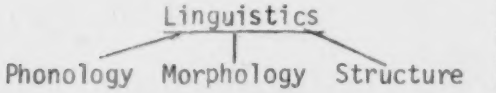
Reference: Fowler - Modern American Usage
Evans - Dictionary of Contemporary Usage

*Only practical way to effect usage changes -- through oral language (tape recorder, much exposure to hearing standard usage)

Distinction between usage and grammar

John threw his dog some meat.
John throwed his dog some meat.
*John some meat his dog threw.

*Ungrammatical/ usage is to grammar as etiquette is to behavior.
(Non-standard language has its own system; need to find out what it is)
"Grammatically correct" is redundant.



Phonology (Ex.- "When Fishermen Meet" of difference between spoken language and written language)

An emaciated tramp and a dessicated cat sat on a cemetery wall gnawing on the carcass of a decimated chicken and viewing with ecstacy the symmetry of a lady's ankle.

Need phonology for spelling as a major reason. (gnu, new, pneumatic, mnemonic)

Phoneme - smallest meaningful unit of sound.

bit and pit (3 sounds each) 33 phonemes

ghoti(fish - enough, women, fish - G. B. Shaw)

That that is is that that is not is not is that not it it is

That that is, is.

That that is not, is not.

Is that not it?

It is.

Intonation -- pitch, stress, juncture

(Why study intonation? Punctuation, meaning)

Ex. - several sentences such as "My brother John is a senior." "John my younger brother is a senior."

Show the students how to use intonation and arrive at their conclusions inductively.

Shoe examples of ambiguity ("Mammoth Man killed by a car")

Signals for clarity

(1) Word order - The dog bit the man.
The man bit the dog.

(2) Phonemic - Jim is a racketeer.
Jim is a rocketeer.

(3) Morphemic - Alice is my girl friend.
Alice is my girl's friend.

(4) Intonation - Jack is a fat chemist.
Jack is a fat chemist.

(1) Traditional grammar - a Latin system

Latin - inflections important

English - structure (word order) important

Move from meaning to structure = traditional

(2) Modern English

Move from structure to meaning

"Ship sails" - add the to clarify the two meanings

The ship sails. Ship the sails.

Form clues

(1) Endings (form)

_____ing _____ly across the _____s, the _____er _____ed the _____est on the horizon.

(2) Position

Write a paragraph omitting the nouns)
Do same with verbs, adjectives, and adverbs) — can work with diction, mood, etc.

(Omit the connectives to show the difficulty in selecting this type of word)

Omit ing, ed words in Theodore Roethke or Dylan Thomas poetry

The nonsense sentence

The iglious Trubians fropped glimply.

(Reliance on form words and position marks the distinction between structural approach and the traditional approach)

Four major word classes) noun
) verb
(Content words))adjective
)adverb

Function words) connectives
) pronouns (personal)
(structure)) auxiliaries
)determiners (noun markers
)particles) intensifiers
) words that fulfill noun functions
) negative words
) expressions of emotions
) salutations

Study of sentence patterns

(Transformational - kernel)

Three methods of expansion
a. modifiers
b. coordinates
c. subordinates

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Acadiana Profile - A Magazine for Bi-Lingual Louisiana
Ca-jun Laugh-In by Howard Jacobs

Acadiana Profile Inc.
P. O. Bos 52247
Oil Center Station
Lafayette, La., 70501

The Illustrated Texas Dictionary of the English Language by Jim Everhart $1.00

Creative Books of Houston
Houston, Texas

Cliff's Notes, Inc.
Box 428
Lincoln, Nebraska 68501

Discovering American Dialects - Roger W. Shuy, Michigan State University

NCTE
1111 Kenyon Road
Urbana, Illinois 61801

Non-Standard Dialect - Board of Education of the City of New York

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1111 Kenyon Road
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(5th) June 1967 Library File Card #65-1892

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THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE

James O'Neil, Consultant, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc.

I. Language is a learned arbitrary system of vocal symbols (articulated sounds) through which human beings interact in terms of their total culture.

A. Language is a system: a pattern or orderly arrangement of sounds.

B. Language is arbitrary; it is without natural, necessary, or logical reasons.

C. Language is learned; all human beings learn the language of their cultures with equal ease.

D. Language is vocal symbols.

1. It is articulated sound used meaningfully.

2. These symbols embody our accumulated experience or culture.

E. Language is predominantly a human activity.

F. Language has for one of its purposes the communication of thought.

G. Every language is adequate for its culture.

II. Linguistics is the science of language; it is the study of human speech.

A. Linguistics deals with the nature, the units, the structure, and the modification of language including especially such factors as phonetics, phonology, morphology, accent, syntax, semantics, general or philosophical grammar, and the relation between writing and speech.

B. The characteristics of scientific study include the selection of a problem, observations followed by classification and analysis, formation of hypotheses, testing, and formulating of firmer generalizations. Linguists study language this way.

III. Military and social history is closely related to the history of our vocabulary and grammar.

A. Indo-European is the common parent of most of the languages of the Western world.

1. Nine languages developed from the Indo-European.

2. English developed from one of the nine, the Teutonic.

B. The inhabitants of Britain have spoken several languages.

1. The original inhabitants spoke Celtic.

2. The Roman invasions and government from 55 B. C. to the fifth century A. D. had great practical influence on the people but were a negligible influence on their language.

3. The Anglo-Saxon invasion ushered in the period of Old English, dating from approximately 450 A. D. to approximately 1100 A. D.

   a. Old English was highly inflected.

   b. Old English had many dialects.

   c. Most of our prepositions, pronouns, auxiliaries, and conjunctions survive from this period.

4. The Norman Invasion of 1066 ushered in the period of Middle English, which lasted until approximately 1500 A.D.

   a. French was the language of the upper classes, the language of politics and of diplomacy.

   b. Latin was the language for ecclesiastical and scholarly matters.

   c. Old English, the language of the common people, almost ceased to be a written language until the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. It lost much of its grammatical refinement, particularly its many intricate inflectional endings.

   d. The fourteenth-century writers Chaucer, Langland, and Wycliffe show the re-ascendance of English but reveal also the influence of French on English and of the French writers on the English writers.

5. The period of Modern English began around 1500 A.D.; it extends to the present time.

   a. The Renaissance, the invention of the printing press, the progress of literacy, and the growth of social consciousness all contributed to the beginning of Modern English.

   b. Changes in and additions to vocabulary were extensive.

   c. "The Great Vowel Shift", begun in the fifteenth centure and completed by the beginning of the sixteenth, changed pronunciation without attendant changes in spelling.

   d. The eighteenth and nineteenth centuries witnessed a movement to standardize the English language; the first English grammars were written.

IV. Grammar is the particular knowledge that enables man to assemble words into meaningful sentences and to pronounce and understand the sentences.

   A. Grammar has three divisions--syntax, phonology, and semantics.

      1. Syntax describes the parts of the sentence, the order in which the parts are arranged, and the agreements required; the basic unit is the morpheme.

      2. Phonology tells how the sentence is pronounced.

      3. Semantics tells what the sentence means.

B. English children studied Latin grammar prior to the seventeenth century.

C. The first English grammars were translations of Latin Grammars (which had been translations of Greek grammars).

1. This grammar is known as traditional grammar.

2. Traditional grammars were divided into orthography, etymology, syntax, and prosody.

3. Traditional grammar was taught by parsing, learning rules, and correcting false syntax.

D. Traditional grammar was challenged around the middle of the nineteenth century by a "new grammar" focused on sentence, not word.

1. It was concerned with the use in the sentence of the word, phrase, or clause.

2. It began to emphasize the grammatical importance of word order and function words.

3. It used algebraic-looking formulas for writing sentences.

E. Around the beginning of the twentieth century, "functional grammar" became the vogue.

1. It never clearly defined itself, its aims, or its techniques.

2. It used drill, drill, drill, as a means of correcting faults in pupils' compositions.

3. It focused attention on what is correct and what is not correct in usage.

F. Toward the mid-point of the twentieth century, there occurred a revolution in grammar.

1. Between 1930 and 1950 structural linguistics produced the "new grammar".

a. Its chief tenet was that language is a great system.

b. It used the technique of substitution--selecting one part and seeing what other parts could replace it.

2. In 1957 generative--transformational grammar evolved.

a. Generative grammar consists of a set of formulas that describe the structure of every normal sentence in the language.

b. Generative grammar is interested not in how we know about a sentence, but in what we know; it uses formulas because they are explicit.

c. Transformational grammar describes changes made on the structure of sentences; these changes may be made by adding to, deleting, substituting, or rearranging. These grammars won't go away; we must respond to them.

3. Other new grammars, such as stratificational, are appearing.

4. These new grammars won't go away; we must respond to them.

V. The term dialect has been re-described by the linguist.

A. A person's individual way of using sounds, words, and constructions is called his idiolect.

B. The linguist recognizes different kinds of dialects.

1. Geographic dialects are those patterns of speech shared by people in a particular geographic region.

2. Social dialects are those patterns of speech shared by a group of people who have roughly similar incomes, standards of living, cultural interests, and social standings.

3. Professional dialects are those speech patterns shared by a group of people who have a common trade or profession.

4. Historical dialects are those speech patterns restricted to a certain period of history.

C. Dialect is associated with speech communities.

D. All speakers use dialect.

E. No one dialect is better than another.

F. Dialects are systematic and to a large extent predictable.

G. Local dialects are quite adequate to describe the thoughts and experiences of its users.

H. The linguist recognizes three different dialect areas in the United States: Northern, Midland, and Southern.

VI. Linguists sometimes use the word dialect to cover levels of usage.

A. Some linguist use a three-fold classification for levels of usage.

1. Formal usage is that usage which comprises the vocabulary and grammar appropriate to a scholarly article or a planned speech to an organized audience.

2. Colloquial usage is that type of vocabulary and grammar found in a familiar letter or an ordinary conversation by a literate person.

3. Illiterate usage is that system of vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation used by people who have had little or no conventional education.

B. Some linguist use a two-fold classification.

1. Standard usage is that form of speech and writing normally used by literate people communicating with other literate people.

2. Nonstandard or substandard usage is that form of speech and writing normally used by uneducated people.

   a. Nonstandard English is an adequate means of communication for its users.

   b. The teacher should suggest standard substitutes but should not condemn other speech patterns.

C. Any level of usage is appropriate in an appropriate place.

BASIC UNDERSTANDINGS OF THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE

1. A language is a system of sounds used meaningfully.
2. The sounds convey meaning only when put together in patterns of words and sentences.
3. The patterns of sound convey meaning to those who know the language.
4. Pitch, stress, and juncture are a part of the sound system of the language and help to convey meaning.
5. Kinesics--gesture, facial expression, and bodily stance--are a part of language which help to convey meaning.
6. The connections between the sounds and the things they represent are purely arbitrary.
7. The sounds are put together in characteristic designs; these designs can be composed of a great variety of appropriate fillers.
8. Language changes: words and meanings are in a constant process of evolution.
9. Each speaker of a language, since he has his own idiolect (linguistic pattern), is an influence on change.
10. There are no primitive languages; every language is adequate for its users.
11. Each language has many dialects; no one dialect is better than another.
12. Each person uses more than one dialect.
13. Language is not correct or incorrect; there are only different levels of usage.
14. Writing is not language; it is another set of symbols to indicate language sounds.

Those of us who have tried to teach grammar using such formulae have often encountered blank gazes of incomprehension even on the part of children who can, without difficulty, write restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses. And if we do succeed, what have we accomplished? Our children can gabble out formulae; they may even be able to write stilted little sentences illustrating the formulae. But what they have learned is nothing more than a prescriptive rule which they have accepted without question and carried out.

How did this kind of formulaic activity start? Is it really necessary? If we are linguists, we might also ask just how accurate these formulae are.

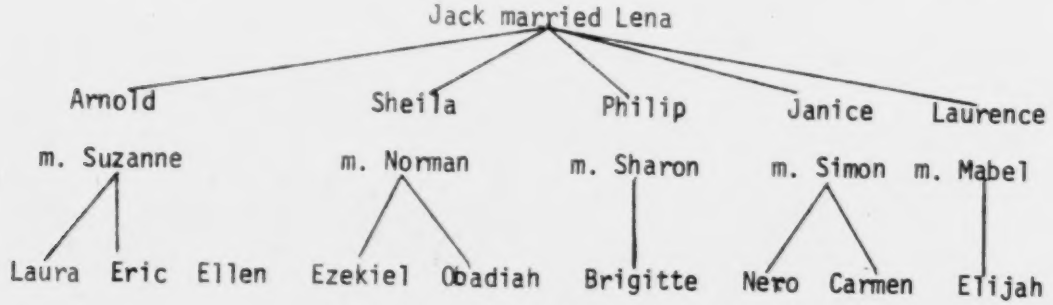
The fact is that the first scholarly work on transformational grammar made use of rather similar formulae. The second appendix to Noam Chomsky's Syntactic Structures, published in 1957, is chockablock with them. Chomsky's book was a technical document directed primarily towards graduate linguists and linguistic philosophers, so he naturally used formulae as abbreviations for ideas, especially in the index. What was important was not the detail of the formulae, but the ideas he was trying to communicate to his fellow-linguists. In fact, today Chomsky would reject most of the 1957 formulae--better ways have been found for treating the same data.

Unfortunately, a number of textbook writers seized not so much on the ideas as on the formulae, and so missed the whole point of what transformational grammarians were trying to do. Infants were taught to babble morphemes, and the result has too often been a stultification of language study. It reminds me of the time when I, a sixth-grader in a British school, was carefully taught the names of the rivers of the east coast of England (Ithink they were Tyne, Tees, Derwent, Ouse, Swale, Aire, Don, Trent, Yare, Stour, Thames!)by using a mnemonic:

ToTal DOSe AiDs TYST

in which the capitalized letters represented the first letter of the river name. I knew the rivers because I had traveled up the coast. However, whenever the teacher gave a test, she would ask, "What is the word that reminds you of the east coast rivers" and leave space on the paper for only the word. I could never remember the darn word so I had to count off the rivers on my fingers, scribbling each initial letter gradually. I never finished the tests and I never found out who the mysterious Mr. Tyst was. Formulae and mnemonics often lead to a poor kind of teaching and learning.

Strangely enough, most writers of secondary-school transformational grammar texts ignored the one kind of symbolism that has been found useful for understanding the basic relationships within a sentence. A sentence tree, like a family tree, is a marvelous way to represent such relationships. Look at this family tree:



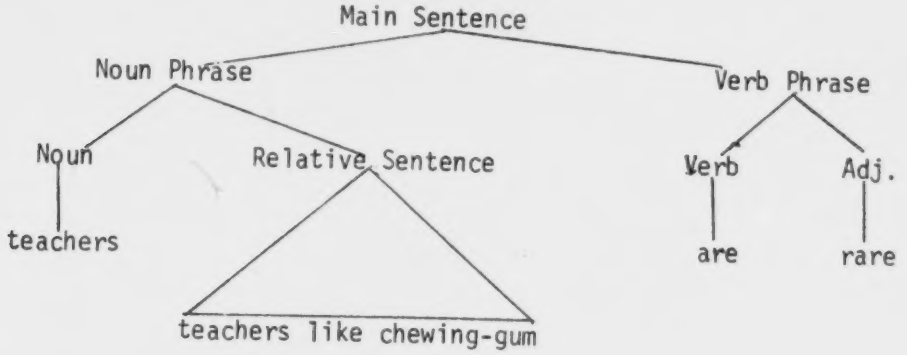
Although we are told only the first names of the family members, we know the inter-relationships. We know who is the cousin, grandfather, nephew, mother, or aunt of whom, although the relationships "cousin," "grandfather," etc., are not named on the tree. Similarly, a sentence tree, especially one for the deep structure, shows the relationships within the sentence: subject, predicate, object, relative clause, and so on.

Look at the first-generation formulae for restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses mentioned earlier. Compare those formulae with what we say about this topic nowadays. First, look at the deep structure trees (abbreviated, as they often are, to focus on particular details) for

(8) Teachers who like chewing-gum are rare.

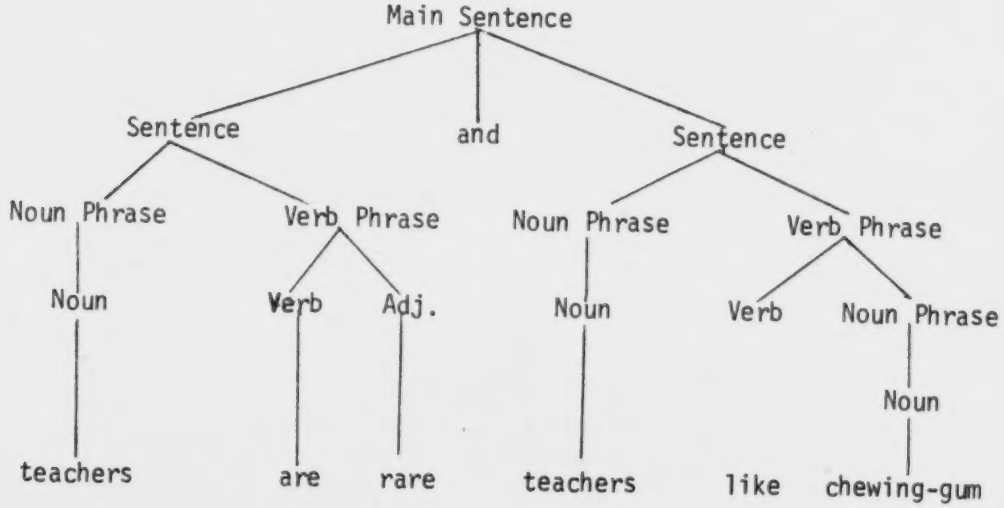
(9) Teachers, who like chewing-gum, are rare.

(8)



The student should be able to see at once that the subject of are rare is the whole noun phrase: "teachers" with the modifying statement that these are the teachers liking chewing-gum. In other words, the sentence is not about the rareness of teachers in general, but simply the rareness of teachers who like chewing-gum. The restrictive relationship is clear.

(9)



Here the subject of are rare is teachers. The general statement is shown: "teachers are rare" -- all teachers, not those who like chewing-gum. The other general statement, "teachers like chewing-gum," is also unrestricted.

To get sentence (8), we apply the relative clause transformation to the deep structure. This changes the second identical noun phrase into who if the noun is human, which or that if the noun is not human. Since teachers are very human, we use who:

(8) Teachers who like chewing-gum are rare.

Our procedure for (9) is different. We could keep the order as it is:

(10) Teachers are rare and teachers like chewing-gum.

But this is rather clumsy, though the meaning is the same as that for (9), the sentence with the nonrestrictive clause. We could convert the second identical noun phrase into a pronoun:

(11) Teachers are rare and they like chewing-gum.

Another transformation we could apply shifts the second sentence to the position after the first subject:

(12) Teachers--and they like chewing-gum--are rare.
(they sure do!)

If we do, then all we need is the nonrestrictive transformation which deletes the and and converts the sentence into a clause by converting the pronoun into who. The relative has entered by a different route and uses different punctuation:

(9) Teachers, who like chewing-gum, are rare.

The commas are matched by pauses, of course, when the sentence is spoken.

The focus of this "second-generation" approach is not only on form but also on meaning. We have related a number of synonymous sentences via transformations to a single structure representing the meaning, and we have shown how the difference in meaning, between restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses is related to fundamental semantic differences represented in the deep structures. As one linguist comments on the newer transformational grammar:

> The major function of a successful explanatory theory is just to establish understandable relations among a variety of otherwise arbitrary and fortuitous observations. Contemporary transformational studies attempt to do that for the ancient intuitions about language. The great grammarians of the past felt in their bones, and quite correctly, that what we wish to say determines in part what we utter; only now can we begin to say in any detail and with any assurance just what that connection consists in.[1]

[1]R. B. Lees, "On Very Deep Grammatical Structure" in Jacobs, R. A. and Rosenbaum, P. S., Readings in English Transformational Grammar (Ginn-Blaisdell forthcoming).

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